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EDUCATIONAL COUNSELORS--TRAINING FOR A NEW DEFINITION OF AFTER-CARE OF JUVENILE PAROLEES. FINAL REPORT.

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THE EDUCATIONAL COUNSELOR PROGRAM INVOLVED TRAINING COLLEGE GRADUATES TO SERVE AS PAROLE OFFICERS FOR JUVENILE OFFENDERS. THE PROGRAM WAS EVALUATED IN A SIX-MONTH FOLLOW-UP STUDY WHICH USED RECIDIVISM AS A CRITERIA. THE EMPHASIS IN THE TRAINING PROGRAM WAS ON GROUP WORK TECHNIQUES. THE FOUR RECIDIVISM VARIABLES CHOSEN WERE--(1) NUMBER OF COURT APPEARANCES WITH ADJUDICATION FOR A NEW OFFENSE, (2) NUMBER OF COMMITMENTS TO AN INSTITUTION WITH ADJUDICATION FOR A NEW OFFENSE, (3) NUMBER OF COMMITMENTS TO AN INSTITUTION WITHOUT ADJUDICATION FOR A NEW OFFENSE, AND (4) NUMBER OF MONTHS OF INCARCERATION. CONTEMPORANEOUS AND HISTORICAL CONTROL GROUPS WERE MATCHED ON FIVE BACKGROUND VARIABLES USEFUL IN PREDICTING FUTURE RECIDIVISM AS INDICATED BY STEP-WISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION PROCEDURES. THE EVALUATION INDICATED THAT GROUP WORK PROCEDURES WERE ONLY OCCASIONALLY USED BY THE COUNSELORS IN THEIR ACTUAL WORK. THERE WAS NO STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE TWO CONTROL GROUPS ON ANY OF THE FOUR RECIDIVISM VARIABLES. THE SHORT FOLLOW-UP PERIOD, THE POSSIBILITY OF GREATER BEHAVIORIAL PATHOLOGY IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, THE UNDETERMINED DISTRIBUTION OF EFFORT AMONG CASES IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, AND THE EFFECT OF THE EXPERIMENTAL SITUATION UPON THE JUDICIAL PROCESS WERE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY. (CG)

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BOSTON UNIVERSITY LAW-MEDICINE INSTITUTE

TRAINING CENTER IN YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

FINAL REPORT

EDUCATIONAL COUNSELORS:

TRAINING FOR A NEW DEFINITION

OF AFTER-CARE OF JUVENILE PAROLEES

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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PREFACE

The training and research reported herein would not have been possible without the valuable assistance of the Division of Youth Service, Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and the support of the staff of the Training Center in Youth Development.

Dr. John D. Coughlan, Director of the Division of Youth Service, and Dr. Francis Kelly, Director of Psychological Research of the Division of Youth Service, have not only contributed facilities and staff but have also encouraged the use of any available data that could help to accurately evaluate the effects of the Educational Counselor Program. They have persistently sought an objective evaluation of this program regardless of outcome so that research could inform policy and lead to better services for youth. They have sought to make research an integral part of organizational function.

Additional assistance has been received from a research advisory committee. Members of the committee were Dr. Francis Kelly, Mrs. Helen O'Meara, Mr. John Borys, Mr. Joseph Cullen, Dr. Paul Lipsitt, Dean William Curran, and Dr. Catherine Richards. Their suggestions have been very useful in formulating the directions of inquiry. Dr. Daniel Baer, psychologist and statistician at Boston College, has served as a consultant and has offered extremely valuable assistance in research design and

data processing.

A silent, but absolutely essential, partner in the conduct of this research has been the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. The opportunity to conduct this research is greatly appreciated and the results are likely to have broad, favorable consequences in the shaping of future programs to increase effectiveness in delinquency prevention.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Educational Counselor Program was initiated by a grant from the Legislature of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts to the Division of Youth Service for the employment of twelve educational counselors and related personnel. This was augmented by a grant from the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development for the special training of educational counselors and an evaluation of the results. This report is a final report on this grant no. 65215.

The Division of Youth Service serves approximately six thousand youths of Massachusetts committed to them each year. The case load of each parole officer typically runs to about seventy or eighty parolees. Because of this large case load, some youths may be incarcerated who with more intensive community support could be released. The experimental program reported herein represents an attempt to provide such support.

The Educational Counselor Program incorporated several noteworthy features. 1) The twelve educational counselors and juvenile parole officers, in the program were college graduates with the social sciences as their major area of study. Four of these men had obtained their master's degrees. Although they had very little or no previous experience as parole officers, they expressed a strong motivation to work with youthful offenders at

the time of their employment in the program. They were generally fairly young with a median age of about thirty years. 2) They were employed by the Division of Youth Service as a group and trained as a group by the Training Center in Youth Development. This group employment and training procedure, a commonly used industrial technique, resulted in the development of high degree of morale aimed toward program success. The training involved special attention to counseling and casework techniques, group work practice, and procedures for the utilization of community resources. 3) The case load of the educational counselors was reduced from the usual case load of about seventy or eighty cases to twenty-five cases. 4) The educational counselors contacted their prospective parolees while they were still in the institution in an attempt to provide support during their transition from the institution to the community.

The evaluation of the experimental program reported here was conducted with very helpful assistance and encouragement of the administration of the Division of Youth Service.

II. PROCEDURE

A. Training

The training of the twelve educational counselors was conducted by the Training Center in Youth Development. A total of approximately forty-five training sessions were held varying in length from a few hours to an entire day. These sessions began in November, 1964 and extended through two follow-up sessions in March, 1966. The training thus continued during the actual operations of the program and during the follow-up period. Approximately twenty-five training sessions were held before the evaluation of results began as reported in this study. Details as to dates, training materials, and teaching personnel are included in Appendices A and B. Only that training conducted before the follow-up period began (August 1, 1965) will be discussed here.

1. Objectives

The training involved five major objectives: 1) to provide training in counseling and group work techniques to the educational counselors; 2) to instruct them in the utilization of community resources; 3) to provide to their supervisors training in supervision and support; 4) to provide supervised field work in group work with delinquents; and 5) to assist in practical working out of new role functions, particularly the legal aspects.

It should be noted that the innovation of group work with delinquents required a special policy ruling by the Director of the Division of Youth Service. Prior to this training, it had never been permissible to allow or encourage contact between delinquents on parole, and is still not permitted in work of the regular parole officers of the Division.

2. Methods and Content

An orientation phase included attendance at the Training Center's Probation Institute I, which was held in late fall, 1964. The educational counselors went to six of the Probation lectures and participated in a series of seminars held after the lectures that provided an introduction to the organization and operations of the Division of Youth Service.

Topics covered at the lectures were: pre-sentence investigation; casework in an authoritative setting; techniques of helping the youthful offender; classification, differential goal-setting, and case load management; law, domestic relations, and the family court; and alcoholism and other mental health problems.

A second phase comprised fifteen sessions of formal training. These sessions were held once a week from March 3, 1965 through June 23, 1965. The morning was devoted to a four-part curriculum covering human growth and development, groups and group work, casework methods, and community resources. The main

training methods used during these morning meetings were group discussions, trainee teams, role-playing, films, and assignment of readings from a selected bibliography (Appendix A).

The afternoon meetings were administrative in nature and were centered on the actual case loads that the educational counselors were then handling. These meetings, which were conducted by the supervisors of the educational counselors, covered matters such as relationships within the Division (with institutions and other parole officers); interaction with the courts; methods of handling specific cases; and a discussion of the "culture of poverty".

B. Evaluation

The evaluation section of the program called for a six month follow-up study comparing the recidivism rates of the parolees in the Educational Counselor Program to the recidivism rates of a contemporaneous and an historical control group. There was also to be some assessment of the effects of the training program on the educational counselors. The six month follow-up study to determine recidivism began August 1, 1965 and ended January 31, 1966.

1. Comparison of the Experimental Group with Randomly Selected Contemporaneous and Historical Groups

Male delinquents under the care of the Division of Youth

Service were assigned to the Educational Counselor Program by the Youth Service Board which individually considered each case. Only youths from urban, high delinquency rate areas were eligible. Other criteria for the assignment of youths to the experimental program were not specified by the Board, but there was some indication that cases of a rather "clinical" nature tended to be assigned to this program. Members of the experimental group can not be considered to have been assigned to this group in a statistically random fashion. Youths not assigned to the Educational Counselor Program were assigned to regular parole supervision.

In contrast, parolees in the contemporaneous and historical control groups were randomly selected. These control groups were designed post hoc because evaluation was not begun until after the beginning of the treatment of the experimental group.

The first step in developing the contemporaneous and historical control groups was the listing, by month, of all parolees released to the community in the urban areas covered by the Educational Counselor Program that were not assigned to educational counselors. From this list, twice as many cases as needed were chosen for the comparison groups by an outside agent, randomly selecting numbers from a table of random numbers. Another outside agent then randomly selected one-half of these randomly selected cases. Thus, three randomization procedures

were used in the construction of the initial comparison groups.

Parolees that were released from institutions from October 1, 1961 to August 1, 1962 were placed in the historical comparison group. Cases released from institutions from October 1, 1964 to August 1, 1965 were placed in the contemporaneous comparison group. Any possible effects from being released during a given month were controlled by placing a nearly similar number of released cases each month in the comparison groups as were in the experimental group.

The experimental and comparison groups were then examined on twenty-two background and offense variables commonly cited in the literature as related to recidivism in order to determine their general similarity. Preliminary two-way independence chi-square analyses and t tests indicated no statistically significant differences ($p. > .05$) between or among the experimental and comparison groups on many variables such as race, school attendance, family status, and certain types of offenses. However, on other variables, statistically significant differences were found. For descriptive purposes, the statistically significant variables are presented in Table 1.

As can be seen in Table 1, the most marked differences were found between the experimental group and the comparison groups rather than between the comparison groups. In general, the experimental group appeared to be somewhat brighter, have

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WHICH WERE SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT FROM THE HISTORICAL OR CONTEMPORANEOUS COMPARISON GROUP PRIOR TO MATCHING*

Characteristics	Hist. (N=181)	Contemp. (N=182)	Exper. (N=154)
Age of First Incarceration (mean)	14.1	13.9	13.5
Commitments with Adjudication for a New Offense (mean)	1.7	1.8	1.4
Months of Incarceration (mean)	15.0	16.1	12.7
I.Q. (mean)	92	90	95
Health Impairment (per cent)	40	36	23
Illegal Use of a Motor Vehicle as a Prior Offense (per cent)	64	70	35
Larceny as a Prior Offense (per cent)	72	98	73

*$p. < .05$.

an earlier age of first incarceration, fewer commitments for a new offense, and fewer adjudications for the illegal use of motor vehicles than the comparison groups.[1] In view of these differences, the groups were not considered adequately matched. Because it was impossible to match the groups on all twenty-two variables, a decision was made to use regression analyses and multiple correlation techniques to set up a table that would indicate which of these variables would be likely to contribute most heavily to subsequent recidivism. The experimental and comparison groups would then be matched on these important predictor variables.

2. Regression Analyses and Multiple Correlation

Using data from the historical group, eleven independent background variables were involved in a step-wise multiple regression procedure. The use of variables related to various types of offenses was deferred for the purpose of a subsequent and more detailed analysis. Three dependent variables (indicators of recidivism) were used: 1) number of offenses for which adjudicated during the follow-up period; 2) number of

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1 The experimental group's lower mean number of months of incarceration might have been the result of the subjects' earlier release from institutions to participate in the experimental program. It could not be taken therefore as a certain indicator of less severity of delinquency in the experimental group.

commitments to an institution for a new offense during the follow-up period; and 3) number of months of incarceration during the follow-up period.

An initial regression analysis was conducted to determine the effect of the eleven independent background variables on each of the three dependent recidivism variables. The analysis using the dependent variable, the number of months of incarceration, resulted in the most significant multiple R of .413 ($p. < .01$). The rank order of the eleven independent variables from most to least contribution to this correlation may be found in Table 2. Similar results were obtained for the other two dependent variables.

The five variables, number of commitments to an institution for a new offense prior to parole, I.Q., family status, age of first incarceration, and number of months of incarceration prior to parole yielded a significant R of .371 ($p. < .01$). When the group was randomly split into two parts and similar regression analyses were performed comparable correlations were observed. On the basis of the regression analyses and the magnitude of the multiple correlation coefficient, these five variables were selected as the most useful ones in predicting future recidivism. They were therefore selected as the background variables upon which the experimental and comparison groups should be matched. Appendix C presents the results in further detail with the

TABLE 2

ELEVEN INDEPENDENT VARIABLES IN ORDER OF STEP-WISE CONTRIBUTION TO THE PREDICTION OF THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE, MONTHS OF INCARCERATION DURING THE FOLLOW-UP PERIOD.

Variables	Multiple R	F
Number of Commitments to an Institution for a New Offense prior to the Follow-Up Period	.245	11.53*
I.Q.	.300	5.98*
Family Status**	.333	4.25*
Age of First Incarceration	.353	2.78*
Number of Months of Incarceration prior to the Follow-Up Period	.371	2.72*
School Attendance***	.383	1.79
Race	.392	1.32
Age of First Court Appearance	.400	1.43
Number of Offenses for which Adjudicated prior to the Follow-Up Period	.403	0.54
Number of Court Appearances prior to the Follow-Up Period	.412	1.43
Health****	.413	0.12

*Significant at $p. < .01$.

**Four categories used ranging from both parents in the home to placement in an institution.

***Three categories used ranging from regular attendance to dismissed from school for irregular attendance or truancy.

****Two categories of impairment used, that of noted in record and impairment not noted in record.

variables listed in order from the most to the least contribution to the prediction of the number of months of incarceration. The least error of coefficient indicates the most contribution.

3. Matching Procedures

The mean number of commitments with adjudication for a new offense prior to experimental treatment was the first variable selected for matching. The matching procedure involved the random removal of extreme cases from the experimental and the two comparison groups until the differences between the groups were not significant ($p. < .05$) on the five variables determined as useful predictors of recidivism.

When the groups were matched on number of commitments, they were also matched on all other important predictor variables except for age of first incarceration. There was a significant difference ($p. < .05$) on this variable between the experimental group (mean of 13.3 years) and the contemporaneous group (mean of 13.9 years) but not between the experimental group and the historical group (mean of 13.8 years) or between the contemporaneous group and historical group. This was probably because the mean interval between the age of first court appearance and the age of first incarceration of the experimental group was smaller (0.9 years) than the mean interval between the age of first court appearance and age of first incarceration of the contemporaneous

and historical groups (both 1.1 years). Therefore, seven cases with extremely long intervals between their first court appearance and their first incarceration were removed from the contemporaneous group. The groups were then matched on this variable.

In summary, the experimental, contemporaneous, and historical groups were finally matched as indicated in Table 3. Using t tests of difference between means of independent groups and chi-square tests of independence, there were no statistically significant differences between the three groups on the five most important predictor variables as previously determined by the multiple correlation procedure.

TABLE 3

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MATCHED EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS PRIOR TO THE FOLLOW-UP PERIOD

Characteristics	Hist. (N=157)	Contemp. (N=152)	Exper. (N=95)
Age of First Court Appearance (mean)	12.7	12.9	12.5
Age of First Incarceration (mean)*	13.8	13.8	13.3
Race (per cent)			
Caucasian	78	66	74
Negro	22	33	25
Other	0	1	1
General Health (per cent)			
With Impairment	41	38	26
Without Impairment	59	62	74
I.Q. (mean)*	88.9	88.5	92.6
Family Status (per cent)*			
Both Parents in the Home	57	48	54
One Parent in the Home	36	44	39
Foster Home	5	6	3
Other	2	1	2
School Attendance (per cent)			
Regular Attendance	42	33	35
Irregular Attendance	48	51	46
Dismissed from School for Irregular Attendance	8	13	17
Other	2	3	2

(Table continued on next page)

Characteristics	Hist. (N=157)	Contemp. (N=152)	Exper. (N=95)
School Academic Standing (per cent)			
At Expected Grade Level	17	14	21
One Year behind Expected Grade Level	25	18	28
Two Years behind Expected Grade Level	30	22	30
Three Years Behind Expected Grade Level	22	28	15
Other	6	19	6
Number of Court Appearances with Adjudication for a New Offense (mean)	2.9	2.9	3.6
Number of Court Appearances without Adjudication (mean)	0.6	0.8	0.6
Number of Commitments with Adjudication for a New Offense (mean)*	1.6	1.8	1.6
Number of Commitments without Adjudication for a New Offense (mean)	0.3	0.4	0.5
Number of Months of Incarceration (mean)*	15.9	15.5	13.7
Illegal Use of a Motor Vehicle (per cent)**	36.3	44.1	29.5
Larceny (per cent)	46.5	51.3	47.4
Breaking and Entering (per cent)	45.2	36.2	32.6

(Table continued on next page)

Characteristics	Hist. (N=157)	Contemp. (N=152)	Exper. (N=95)
School Offender (per cent)	8.3	9.2	8.4
Assault (per cent)	8.9	9.8	8.4
Stubborn Child (per cent)	11.5	13.8	15.8
Sex (per cent)	4.5	6.6	6.3
Arson (per cent)	4.5	4.6	7.4
Other (per cent)	28.7	28.9	29.5

*Variable useful in predicting recidivism in multiple correlation procedure.

**Per cent refers to the number of cases that have an adjudication related to that offense in their record.

III. RESULTS

A. Effects of Training

Several different instruments were used to measure the attitudes of the trainees toward their clients, the information learned, and the potential for applying the knowledge gained. During the first training session, the trainees were asked to complete a questionnaire which was an adaptation of "How I Counsel" Form A, by Benz and also Remmers "A Scale for Measuring Attitudes Toward Any Defined Group," Form A. Copies of these tests may be found in Appendix F. The groups toward whom they were asked to record their attitudes were community agencies, dominant mothers, homosexuals, passive fathers, and non-delinquents. The trainees were asked at a later date to answer open-ended questions related to group work, use of authority, and professional relationships. At the conclusion of the training sessions, the open-ended questions and alternative forms of the questionnaire were again administered.

There did not seem to be any marked shifts in attitudes as the result of training as measured by the above instruments with the exception of a less negative view of dominant mothers. Even this change was not, however, statistically significant. Nor was any extensive increase in knowledge of casework or group techniques noted. There appeared to be a trend toward increased

awareness of the influence of the environment, the need to be non-judgmental, and better knowledge of counseling principles, but here again the gains were not statistically significant.

Group work procedures were only minimally used by the educational counselors. Group meetings were regularly held by only three of the counselors and the other counselors either held group meetings very irregularly or actively resisted the use of group work procedures. This occured even following the use of two group preceptors who personally met with the counselors in their work situations three or more times to encourage and instruct them in group methods. The results of the Educational Counselor Program cannot therefore be assumed to reflect the effectiveness of group work techniques with juvenile parolees, although this was originally intended, because group work procedures were not generally used by the counselors.

B. <u>Effects on Recidivism</u>

The effectiveness of the Educational Counselor Program in preventing recidivism was measured on four variables following the treatment period: 1) number of court appearances with adjudication for a new offense; 2) number of commitments to an institution with adjudication for a new offense; 3) number of commitments to an institution without adjudication for a new offense; and 4) number of months of incarceration. The outcomes

on these variables were based on a six month follow-up study with an evaluation of each case made six months following the parolee's release. Thus, each parolee was in the experimental group or a control group six months before evaluation began.

The six month follow-up data showed no statistically significant difference on any of the major recidivism variables. As indicated in Table 4, the use of chi-square and t tests of independence did not show significant differences between the experimental group and the two control groups on number of parolees appearing in court, number of parolees committed to an institution with or without adjudication for a new offense, or months of incarceration. For example, 23.6 per cent of the historical group appeared in court, 17.0 per cent of the contemporaneous group, and 14.7 per cent of the experimental group, but this difference is not statistically significant. Of the total number of parolees in the historical group, 61 (38.2 per cent) were returned to an institution, 58 (37.5 per cent) of the contemporaneous group were returned, and 39 (41.0 per cent) of the experimental group were returned. There were no significant differences on any of the recidivism variables between two control groups.

A closer inspection of trends indicates that the mean number of months of incarceration of the experimental group following treatment (2.1 months) was considerably higher than the

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF HISTORICAL, CONTEMPORANEOUS, AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON RECIDIVISM VARIABLES DURING THE SIX MONTH FOLLOW-UP PERIOD*

Recidivism Variables	Hist. (N=157)	Contemp. (N=152)	Exper. (N=95)
Parolees Appearing in Court with Adjudication for a New Offense (per cent)	23.6	17.0	14.7
Parolees Returned to an Institution with and without Adjudication for a New Offense (per cent)	38.2	37.5	41.0
Parolees Returned to an Institution with Adjudication for a New Offense (per cent)	15.3	13.8	10.5
Parolees Returned to an Institution without Adjudication for a New Offense (per cent)	22.3	23.7	30.5
Number of Months of Incarceration (mean)	1.6	1.3	2.1

*No differences between groups at $p. < .05$.

mean number of months of incarceration of the contemporaneous (1.3 months) and historical (1.6 months) groups following treatment. This difference, increased months of incarceration, almost reaches statistical significance between the experimental and contemporaneous groups.

While the number of commitments with adjudication for a new offense is lower in the experimental group compared to the control groups, the number of commitments without adjudication for a new offense is higher in the experimental group compared to the control groups. Approximately 74 per cent of those parolees returned to an institution in the experimental group were returned without an adjudication for a new offense. Approximately 58 per cent of the historical group and 63 per cent of the contemporaneous group were so returned to an institution without adjudication for a new offense (Table 5). The court contributed significantly more returns without adjudication to the experimental group than to the control groups (Table 5).

The total number of months of incarceration accumulated by the experimental group during the follow-up period was 167 and of this total 127 months, 76 per cent were contributed by parolees who were returned without an adjudication for a new offense. Of the total number of months of incarceration accumulated by the contemporaneous and control groups, the parolees returned without adjudication for a new offense contributed

TABLE 5

PROCEDURES USED IN THE RETURN OF PAROLEES TO INSTITUTIONS DURING THE FOLLOW-UP PERIOD*

	Hist. (N=60)		Cont. (N=57)		Exper. (N=39)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Returned by the Court with Adjudication for a New Offense	24	40.0	21	36.8	10	25.6
Returned by the Court or by Parole Authority without Adjudication for a New Offense	35	58.3	36	63.2	29	74.3
Returned by the Court without Adjudication for a New Offense	10	16.7	10	17.5	13	33.3*
Returned by Parole Authority without Adjudication for a New Offense	25	41.7	26	45.6	16	41.0
Other**	1	1.7	0	0.0	0	0.0

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* $p. < .05$

** One case in the historical group was returned twice, once with adjudication and once without adjudication for a new offense.

72 per cent and 68 per cent respectively. In summary, the parolees returned without adjudication for a new offense in all groups contributed the major portion of the total number of months of incarceration.

Some additional analyses were conducted to examine the effects of the experimental treatment upon sub-populations such as early offenders. A three-way independence chi-square analysis showed no significant differences on number of court appearances or number of commitments during the follow-up period taking age into consideration. Likewise, there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups on number of court appearances, number of commitments, and months of incarceration taking into account factors such as age of first incarceration, I.Q., prior incarcerations, or adjudications for the illegal use of an automobile. Following the scaling procedures of Sellin and Wolfgang (1964), a two-way independence chi-square analysis did not indicate significant differences between the experimental group and the control groups on the seriousness of offenses generally.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Limitations of the Study

1. Minimal Follow-Up Period

Interpretation of the results of the Educational Counselor Program needs to take into account several factors that complicate and limit the generalizations that can be made from this study. First, the follow-up period from which the recidivism data are derived is only six months in length. While this might be long enough to assess the effects of certain types of "supportive" intervention, it surely is not long enough to assess the effects of more psychodynamically oriented counseling which may require nearly this long to establish a constructive, therapeutic relationship.[2] This is of particular importance because the experimental group may have tended to have more parolees with "clinical" type behavior problems such as arson in contrast to the illegal use of a motor vehicle. This implicit pathology will be discussed in further detail in the following section. A follow-up study of

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[2] See for example Giffin, M. E. Johnson, A. M., and Litin (1954); Glover (1960).

at least eighteen months in length would be desirable.[3]

2. Implicit Pathology

Before the experimental and control groups were matched, they differed on certain variables such as age of first court appearance and types of offenses that could indicate varying amounts of personality disturbance. The experimental group had a lower age of first court appearance and age of first incarceration than the control groups. The experimental group also had more adjudications for arson and stubborn child and fewer adjudications for the illegal use of a motor vehicle than the control groups. On the other hand, the experimental group had fewer adjudications for the offenses, assault, (largely fighting) and breaking and entering. In view of the low age of involvement in the legal process and the high incidence of stubborn child adjudications in the experimental group, it could be inferred that the delinquent behavior of the experimental group was more likely the result of personality disturbances or enduring social difficulties rather than the result of temporary stress or typical involvement in sub-culturally approved activities.

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[3] Using the California Department of Corrections' population, Gottfredson and Ballard (1965) found that from six months after parole until nearly eight years, major new offenses and prison returns accumulate as a linear function of the logarithm of time after parole. Approximately one half of the offenses occur in the first one and one-half years and then continue at a decreasing rate during the next six and one-half years.

Some support for this inference of more "clinical" cases in the experimental group than in the control groups was offered by the administrative staff. They felt that some clinically difficult cases may have been assigned to the experimental program because it was assumed that these cases needed close supervision and special treatment in order to be maintained in the community. These clinical cases may require more time and effort than those cases where the problems may be transitory or situationally reactive and treatable by brief environmental interventions.

The inclusion of a greater number of clinical cases in the experimental group raises some complex problems in experimental design. Some clinical cases tend to have a lower recidivism rate than the more typical, delinquent cases. Thus, adolescent arsonists have a much lower predicted recidivism rate (based on number of court appearances and commitments for a new offense, but not necessarily on months of incarceration) than those adolescents who steal cars. The matching of the experimental and control groups on recidivism indices tended to eliminate those cases with high predicted recidivism from the control groups (e.g., cases of illegal use of a motor vehicle and a high number of prior commitments to an institution) and eliminate those cases with low predicted recidivism from the experimental group (e.g., cases of stubborn child and low number of prior commitments). This does not, however, control for those situations in the experimental

group in which low delinquent activity prior to the experimental study was obtained only by much therapeutic attention. While it was possible to match groups post hoc externally on important predictive variables, it was not possible to match them (at least with any objective certainty) on factors of clinical pathology which may have been implicitly greater in the experimental group. Two cases of auto theft could be markedly different; one the result of temporary expediency and the other the result of pervasive adolescent turmoil with great symbolic meaning. If more of the latter cases were included in the experimental group than in the control groups, then the educational counselors would have to be very effective merely to obtain recidivism rates equal to the control groups. The random assignment of cases to the experimental and control groups rather than post hoc matching would have been very helpful in overcoming this difficulty of implicit pathology. Alternatively, it would have been helpful to have standardized tests available to measure the relative clinical pathology of the experimental and control groups.

3. Undetermined Distribution of Effort

There is still another difficulty resulting largely from the matching of the groups on a post hoc basis. Not all of the cases seen by the educational counselors could be included in this study. In order to match the experimental and comparison

groups most efficiently, forty-seven cases in the experimental group were removed following a careful inspection of the means and standard deviations on the five predictive variables of the groups. It was often necessary to remove cases in the experimental group to avoid the removal of many more cases from the comparison groups. Such a condition would then produce significant differences between the means of the groups on other important variables which would then require the removal of more cases. Most of the cases removed from the experimental group were those with a much lower number of commitments to an institution with adjudication for a new offense then the contemporaneous group, i.e., lower expected recidivism rates. When the groups were matched on this variable (the most useful variable in the multiple regression procedure for predicting future recidivism), they were also matched on all the other background variables except for age of first incarceration. Seven cases from the contemporaneous control group with extremely long intervals between the age of their first court appearance and their first incarceration were removed to correct this difference.[4]

There is no way of knowing the amount of effort the educational counselors expended upon those cases removed from the

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[4]Cases were also eliminated from the groups for other reasons such as death and unavailable or unclear data.

study. If these removed cases has been given an unusually large amount of attention, then those cases left in the study may unfairly reflect the effectiveness of the program. Because the cases removed from the study generally had a lower number of prior commitments to an institution than the rest of the sample, it is assumed that these cases were not the most troublesome and therefore were not given an unusual amount of attention that would strongly bias the results in a negative direction. This is only an assumption because the actual amount of attention given to the individual cases by the educational counselors was not assessed.

B. Treatment Effects

The following discussion must be placed with the context of the limitations noted above and it is therefore of a rather speculative nature. Its primary use may be in the design of future programs and in the formulation of policy relevant to further research.

It is not difficult to find experimental programs in the treatment of offenders that fail to demonstrate positive therapeutic results. One of the more frequently cited ones is that of the Cambridge-Somerville Youth Study.[5]

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[5] Tueber and Powers, (1953); McCord, McCord, and Zola (1959).

A noteworthy study by Guttman (1963) shows differential effects of short-term psychiatric treatment within an institutional setting on two experimental groups of adolescent parolees. A fifteen month follow-up study was used. In one experimental group, psychiatric treatment was not significantly associated with a lower parole violation rate for the treatment group as compared to its control group using a .05 probability level.[6] In the other treatment group, psychiatric treatment was significantly correlated with a higher parole violation rate as compared to its control group. The latter group tended to receive more traditionally oriented psychotherapy than the former group. There were no statistically significant differences between or among the treatment and control groups on "seriousness" of offenses following treatment. The causes of the failure to reduce violation rates significantly were not clear but the following possibilities were cited. Not enough time was permitted for the effective use of classical forms of psychological treatment.

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[6] Although Guttman (1963) summarizes the results of treatment of the first experimental group as possibly associated with a lower violation rate, the report uses a probability cutoff-point of .20. At the more standard .05 level of probability, there was no significant difference between this experimental group and its control group on number of violations ($N=123$; $X^2 = 2.92$; $p. = .09$). In the second experimental group, treatment was significantly correlated ($N=215$; $X^2 = 4.23$; $p. < .05$) with higher violation rates.

Premature termination of this type of therapy could have left the parolees in an even more vulnerable position than no treatment. Those youths receiving special treatment might have been singled out by control subjects as being "crazy" and thus positive peer group relationships may have been jeopardized. A fifteen month follow-up study was too brief as the positive effects of treatment might not become apparent for several years. Finally the treatment might have had varying effects on different types of offenders.

This last point is one worthy of careful consideration and is perhaps applicable to the Educational Counselor program. It is possible that the treatment offered by the educational counselors acted differentially upon the parolees. If in some cases the treatment produced negative effects and these cases were not separated from the other more frequent cases where treatment produced positive effects, the overall results could conceal these positive effects. The reverse could also be true. Some unspecified positive cases could conceal more general negative effects. A clearer specification of cases yielding potentially positive or negative effects is needed. An attempt was made to do this by examining the recidivism rates of experimental and control groups on variables such as age of first offense, types of offense, I.Q., number of prior commitments to an institution, and seriousness. The outcomes on these variables were not statistically significant.

It may be that more "dynamically" oriented variables such as ego strength would have yielded better results. However, attempts by Guttman (1963) in the study mentioned above to correlate outcomes with MMPI profile ratings, staff ratings on amenability to treatment, personal adjustment, risk of future recidivism, or severity of offenses were also not successful.

C. Hazards of Close Supervision

The close supervision of parolees may produce some problems that are very difficult to control in the standard research design. One of these might be called, for the lack of a better name, the "bias of information" (Schwitzgebel, 1965). A parole officer who is in frequent contact with a parolee is more likely to notice illegal behavior and personality problems than a parole officer who rarely sees the parolee. With a case load of seventy or more, a parole officer is not likely to see much of his parolees unless they need special help or get into trouble with the law. With a case load of twenty-five in the Educational Counselor Program sufficiently frequent contact was made with the parolees and their families that considerable information was accumulated about each parolee. Many parents, school officials, and some employers knew the educational counselors well enough to call them about the parolees under their care. Because such calls tend to be made when there is some difficulty rather

than when things are going well, the information accumulated tends to be of a negative rather than positive nature.

If we then take a hypothetical situation in which two identical parolees are brought before the court on identical charges but one has been under close supervision and one has not, the one without close supervision is likely to have a "better" record than the one with close supervision. Thus, the experimental subject who has received close supervision, may face the court within a more negative context than a similar control subject. If the record of the parolee informally indicates involvement in fighting or assault, the likelihood of a negative finding may be considerably increased. There is some evidence that judges tend to incarcerate offenders with records of assault more frequently than property offenders regardless of the low probability of subsequent violation of parole by assault (Babst and Mannering, 1965).

The effect of a number of cases with detailed information about misconduct in the community could produce an artificially high recidivism rate in the experimental group as measured by number of commitments to an institution and months of incarceration. The number of court appearances would probably be less influenced by this information. Some tentative support for this hypothesis, or perhaps more accurately, no disconfirmation of it, may be found in the fact that although the experimental group

parolees did not appear more frequently in court than the control groups (even somewhat less frequently than the historical control group), they were more often committed to institutions and spent more months incarcerated. It is doubtful whether this difference can be accounted for entirely by greater severity of offenses by the experimental group.

Additional information in the case records of the experimental group may also have broad consequences within the judicial process because of its influence upon the parole officers. For example, a parole officer who has considerable information about a parolee's maladaptive behavior prior to the youth's appearance in court may be less willing than usual to suggest that the youth is innocent. On one hand, he is interested in preventing further offenses and on the other he may want the experimental program to succeed. A strategic procedure in this case would be to avoid sending the parolee directly back to the institution by parole authority. If the parolee appears in court, the parole officer may attempt to get the case filed or a suspended sentence. If this was the situation, then one would expect that the experimental group would tend to have fewer direct returns to an institution by parole authority than the control group and would have more returns to an institution by the court without adjudication for a new offense than the control groups, Table 5 indicates this.

Given these conditions, if the experimental treatment did not produce results markedly different from the treatment of the control groups (thus allowing a roughly equal proportion of parole violators in both groups), one would expect more cases in the control group to be returned to an institution with adjudication for a new offense than in the experimental group. An examination of the procedures used in returning parolees in the experimental and control groups in the present study shows this pattern. In the historical group, 40 per cent of those parolees returned during the follow-up period were returned with adjudication for a new offense. In the contemporaneous group, 36.8 per cent were so returned. These percentages are considerably larger than the 25.6 per cent of the experimental group returned with adjudication for a new offense.

Assuming the possibility of experimental influences upon the judicial process used in the return of parolees from the experimental and control groups, the rating of the seriousness of offenses for comparison purposes based upon adjudications, becomes a very questionable procedure. It is possible that the less serious offenses involving parolees in the experimental group were more often filed or resulted in suspended sentences than in the control groups. The more serious offenses would then result in returns with adjudication. Thus, the seriousness of adjudicated offenses for the experimental group would be

artificially high in comparison to the seriousness of offenses for the control groups. Further recidivism studies may need to consider more carefully the inadvertent effect of experimental design upon the judicial process.

V. SUMMARY

Twelve juvenile parole officers who were college graduates were given special training in group work procedures and assigned reduced case loads of twenty-five juvenile parolees each. These parole officers, known as educational counselors, were trained as a group and were given considerable institutional support in their new role. A six month follow-up study was designed to measure the effect of the Educational Counselor Program on the four recidivism variables: 1) number of court appearances with adjudication for a new offense; 2) number of commitments to an institution with adjudication for a new offense; 3) number of commitments to an institution without adjudication for a new offense; and 4) number of months of incarceration. Contemporaneous and historical control groups were designed post hoc by matching on at least five background variables useful in predicting future recidivism as indicated by step-wise multiple regression procedures.

An evaluation of training effects indicated that the educational counselors were using group work procedures only occasionally in their daily work with parolees. The six month follow-up data showed no statistically significant differences on any of the four major recidivism variables between the experimental group and the two control groups.

Additional analyses using sub-populations such as first offenders, recidivists, young offenders, and offenders adjudicated for certain types of offenses did not yield significant differences on major recidivism variables. Nor was a significant difference found between the experimental group and the control groups on the seriousness of offenses for which the parolees were adjudicated during the follow-up period.

The study is subject to several severe limitations. Among these are the short follow-up period, the possibility of extensive but undetected behavioral pathology in the experimental group, the undetermined distribution of effort among cases in the experimental group, and the effect of the experimental situation upon the judicial process. Results must therefore be cautiously interpreted.

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APPENDIX A

TRAINING DATES AND MATERIALS

Dates:		
	Orientation	November 25, 1964 through January 20, 1965
	Training	March 3 through June 23, 1965
	Follow-up	September 29 and October 20, 1965
	Field Training in Group Work	November, 1965 through January, 1966
	Follow-up	March 16 and 23, 1966

Training Materials:

Henry L. Hartman, M.D., "Interviewing Techniques in Probation and Parole"

I. Building the Relationship
II. The Art of Listening
III. The Initial Interview (Part 1)
IV. The Initial Interview (Part 2)

Saleem A. Shah, "Changing Attitudes and Behavior of Offenders"

Brochure, "Training Center in Youth Development"

National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "You and the Law"

Ruth and Edward Brecher, "The Delinquent and the Law"

Children's Bureau Publ. 347, "The Adolescent in Your Family"

Norris E. Class, "Neglect, Social Deviance, and Community Action"

Monrad G. Paulsen, "Fairness To the Juvenile Offender"

October 1964, Publications of the Children's Bureau

Children's Bureau Publ. 406, Child Welfare Services

(U.S.C. 2571-2620), "Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, As Amended"

Fritz Redl, "Who Is Delinquent?"

Charles H. Shirman, "Casework in Probation and Parole: Some Considerations in Diagnosis and Treatment"

John R. Ellingston, "Protecting Our Children from Criminal Careers"

Catharine Richards, "Tasks of Adolescents" and "Youth Problems"

Bertha Doleman, "Reflections"

Donald P. Kenefick, "Basic Concepts of Deviant Sexuality"

Jane K. Ives, "Techniques of Helping the Youthful Offender"

American Psychiatric Association, "A Psychiatric Glossary"

Francis J. Kelly, "Toward a Working Typology of Delinquent Children"

Francis Maloney, Joseph Cullen, Thomas Cooke, "Commonwealth Operated Regional Detention Services"

Francis J. Kelly, "Procedure for the Referral of Parents of Children Committed to the Division of Youth Service to the Division of Legal Medicine After-Care Clinic"

Francis J. Kelly, "An Introductory Guide for Incoming Clinical Personnel"

Arlene Smilow, "The Culture of Limited Opportunities"

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APPENDIX B

TRAINING PERSONNEL

(Phase I) Orientation

Paul Keve, Director of Municipal Court Services, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Elmer W. Reeves, Chief Probation Officer, New York County Supreme Court

Jane K. Ives, Professor, Social Welfare Education, State University of New York at Albany

Donald P. Kenefick, M. D., Assistant Director, Law-Medicine Institute, Boston University

John Wallace, Director of Probation, Municipal Court, New York City

William T. Smith, Department of Correction, State of New York

Dr. John Coughlan, Director, Youth Service Division, Commonwealth of Massachusetts

John M. Borys, Supervisor of Educational Counselors, Youth Service Division

(Phase II) Training--Teaching Panel

Dr. John D. Coughlan, Director, Youth Service Division, Commonwealth of Massachusetts

Dr. Francis Kelly, Psychologist, Youth Service Division

Mrs. Helen O'Meara, Liaison-Teacher, Coordinator, Training Center in Youth Development

Dr. Catharine V. Richards, D. S. W., Assistant Director, Training Center in Youth Development

Dr. Ralph Schwitzgebel, Research Analyst, Training Center in Youth Development

(Phase III) First Follow-Up

Neil L. Chayet, Associate Professor of Legal-Medicine, Boston University

Honorable Paul Connolly, Judge of the Waltham District Court

(Phase IV) Group Work Field Work Preceptors

John Ansty, Newton-Baker Project, Newton, Mass.

Robert Daniels, Newton-Baker Project, Newton, Mass.

Richard Rowland, Roxbury Multi-Service Center, Boston, Mass.

(Phase V Second Follow-Up

Dorothy Rowell, Social Work Supervisor, Cambridge Court Clinic

Dr. Ralph Schwitzgebel, Research Analyst, Training Center in Youth Development

William Sears, Educational Counselor, Massachusetts Youth Service Division

APPENDIX C

CONTRIBUTION OF FIVE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES TO THE PREDICTION OF THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE, NUMBER OF MONTHS OF INCARCERATION DURING THE FOLLOW-UP PERIOD.

Independent Variables	Coefficient	Error of Coefficient
Number of Commitments Prior to the Follow-Up Period	0.60	0.19
Family Status	-0.36	0.21
I.Q.	-0.28	1.21
Number of Months of Incarceration Prior to the Follow-Up Period	-3.36	2.04
Age of First Incarceration	-0.17	7.46*

*R= .371, df= 175, p. <.01.

APPENDIX D

COMPARISON OF BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF MATCHED GROUPS BEFORE AND AFTER THE SIX MONTH FOLLOW-UP PERIOD.

Characteristics	Before Follow-Up			After Follow-Up		
	Hist.	Cont.	Exper.	Hist.	Cont.	Exper.
General Health (per cent)						
With Impairment	41	38	26	38	41	31
Without Impairment	59	62	74	62	59	69
Family Status (per cent)						
Both Parents in Home	57	48	54	54	47	55
One Parent in Home	36	44	39	38	43	29
Foster Home	5	6	3	4	7	9
Other	2	1	2	4	3	6
School Attendance (per cent)						
Regular Attendance	42	33	35	24	22	25
Irregular Attendance	48	51	46	6	10	8
Dismissed From School for Irregular Attendance	8	13	17	3	2	1
Other	2	3	2	66	67	66
School Academic Standing (per cent)						
At Expected Grade Level	17	14	21	13	5	10
One Year Behind Expected Grade Level	25	18	28	24	17	21
Two Year Behind Expected Grade Level	30	22	30	26	20	33
Three Year Behind Expect-Grade Level	22	28	15	26	32	18
Other	6	19	6	10	26	18

APPENDIX E

PER CENT OF PAROLEES WITH ADJUDICATIONS FOR VARIOUS OFFENSES BEFORE AND AFTER THE MATCHING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND COMPARISON GROUPS

Offenses	Before Matching			After Matching		
	Hist.	Cont.	Exper.	Hist.	Cont.	Exper.
Illegal Use of a Motor Vehicle	63.9	69.7	35.4	36.3	44.1	29.5
Larceny	71.6	98.4	72.6	[illegible]5	51.3	47.4
Breaking and Entering	72.1	51.9	41.5	45.2	36.2	32.6
School Offender	9.8	10.8	8.5	8.3	9.2	8.4
Assault	14.8	11.9	7.9	8.9	9.8	8.4
Stubborn Child	10.9	17.3	20.7	11.5	13.8	15.8
Sex	6.0	6.9	4.9	4.5	6.6	6.3
Arson	4.9	5.9	6.7	4.5	4.6	7.4
Other	42.1	36.8	38.4	28.7	28.9	29.5

APPENDIX F

TRAINING CENTER IN YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
Law-Medicine Institute, Boston University

An Adaptation of
"How I Counsel" Form A

by

Stanley C. Benz
and
H. H. Remmers

1. A worker must be able to see a specific problem as it is related to an entire situation. _____1.

2. A worker must think of the client as a whole personality, but must keep in mind the specific purpose of the interview. _____2.

3. A primary aim of working with a client is to get him to achieve sufficient insight into his own relationship with reality so that he can handle his problem effectively. _____3.

4. When choosing a vocation, most high school graduates need the trust and confidence of their parents more than they need parental advice. _____4.

4. A worker should be primarily concerned with clients who frequently get into trouble rather than with those who seldom do. _____5.

6. The intellectually gifted very rarely need the aid of a counselor on educational problems. _____6.

7. Test results should not be considered as solutions to a client's problems. _____7.

8. A primary aim of casework is to get the client's problem solved so that he will behave in a socially approved manner. _____8.

9. Occupational counseling should not be considered adequate without objective data including scores on interest and ability tests. _____9.

10. A worker should help a client gather and interpret information about himself and the situation he is trying to meet. _____10.

11. Helping clients means giving them advice. _____11.

12. Workers should be removed as far as possible from any disciplinary activities. _____12.

13. Effective casework must be based upon a client's understanding of his own assests and liabilities. _____13.

14. A worker should always be primarily concerned with the adjustment of the client rather than with the solution of some specific problem which may be of great interest at the moment. _____14.

15. A good caseworker will solve extremely difficult problems for a client. _____15.

16. The basic needs of a delinquent child are fundamentally the same as those of a non-delinquent child. _____16.

17. A worker should be a stable, well adjusted person. _____17.

18. A worker must believe that no clients problem is to be disregarded as unimportant. _____18.

19. By the time a student is a junior or senior in high school he should have rather definite ideas as to what vocation he should enter. _____19.

20. The making of a vocational decision is a gradual process. _____20.

21. A person's needs for security in the home and for affection of parents are as real as his physical needs for food and warmth. _____21.

22. Most high school students have strong emotions and sometimes permit them to overshadow their better judgment. _____22.

23. An understanding of one's problems can usually be gained on an intellectual basis. Emotion plays a very small part. _____23.

24. Most maladjustments exist because a person doesn't have the knowledge necessary for dealing with his problem. _____24.

25. Abnormal behavior is merely an exaggeration or a disguised development of normal behavior. _____25.

26. Day-dreaming is a form of retreat from real situations which seem too difficult to solve. _____26.

27. When a person rationalizes about his behavior, he is probably retreating from reality with which he is unable to cope. _____27.

28. A highly desirable source of information about students is their previous academic record. _____28.

29. The attitude of the people in a community can contribute to the delinquency of a child. _____29.

30. Maladjustment is frequently caused by a conflict between the child and a dominating parent. _____30.

31. For counseling purposes a student's intelligence can be adequately inferred from his scholastic record. _____31.

32. A worker should listen uninterruptedly to any flow of hostile feelings which are being expressed by a client. _____32.

33. If a client makes contradictory statements, the worker should hasten to point out this inconsistency. _____33.

34. A conscious desire for help on the part of the client is advantageous but not entirely necessary for casework. _____34.

35. Warning a child about the consequences of his behavior will not result in adjustment. _____35.

36. Teachers' grades are as useful to a worker as results from objective tests of intelligence and achievement. _____36.

37. Occupational counseling is synonymous with the giving of occupational information. _____37.

38. Praise is a better stimulus for improvement than blame. _____38.

39. A student's academic school record is valuable for helping the counselor become acquainted with his interests and abilities. _____39.

40. When a client has stated what he thinks his problem is and then awaits advice, the worker should briefly explain the purpose of the casework procedure, thus placing the responsibility for continuing back on the client. _____40.

41. When a client expresses a hostile attitude toward someone who the worker feels certain is not guilty of such accusations, the worker should talk in defense of the accused. _____41.

42. If a client fails to keep an appointment, the worker should give him an opportunity to make another appointment but should not insist that he make one. _____42.

43. It is the worker's responsibility to suggest that a student take courses in school or jobs which are in keeping with the student's abilities and interests. _____43.

44. It is not good practice to continue telling a client that his problem is "not too serious," "nothing to worry about", etc. _____44.

45. The first step in casework is a diagnosis of the client's problem. _____45.

46. In opening an interview, a worker should suggest several reasons why the client may have come too see him, the purpose being to get the client to tell why he came. _____46.

47. A worker should not lead a client to feel that the worker knows the answer to the problem. _____47.

48. After rapport is established, no silent pauses should occur during the interview. _____48.

49. Information which has been obtained about the client by means of tests, questionnaires, and inventories should not be interpreted to him beyond his ability to understand. _____49.

50. A legitimate way of solving a problem is to change the environment which is contributing to the client's maladjustment. _____50.

A SCALE FOR MEASURING ATTITUDE TOWARD ANY DEFINED GROUP

Form A Edited by H. H. Remmers

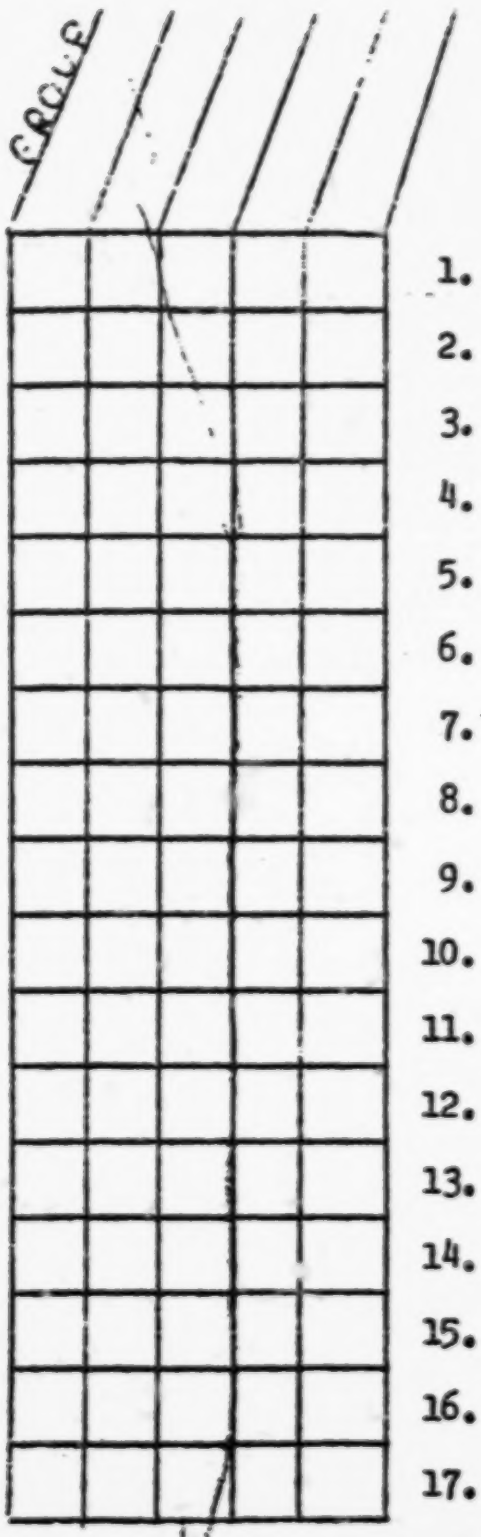
Date _____

Code _____

Age _____ Highest grade completed _____

In what community do you work? _____

Directions: Following is a list of statements about any group. Place a plus sign (+) before each statement with which you agree with reference to the group listed at the left of the statements. The person in charge will tell you the group to write in at the head of the columns to the left of the statements. Your score will in no way affect your grade in any course.



1. Can be depended upon as being honest.
2. Are far above my own group.
3. Some of our best citizens are descendents from this group.
4. Deserve much consideration from the rest of the world.
5. Command the respect of any group.
6. Are quick to apprehend.
7. Are a God-fearing people.
8. Have an air of dignity about them.
9. Are highly emotional.
10. Take an exceptional pride in themselves.
11. Are superstitious.
12. Are self indulgent.
13. Do not impress me favorably.
14. I am not in sympathy with these people.
15. Would likely prove disloyal to our government.
16. Belong to a low social level
17. Are mentally defective

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A SCALE FOR MEASURING ATTITUDE TOWARD ANY DEFINED GROUP

Form B Edited by H. H. Remmers

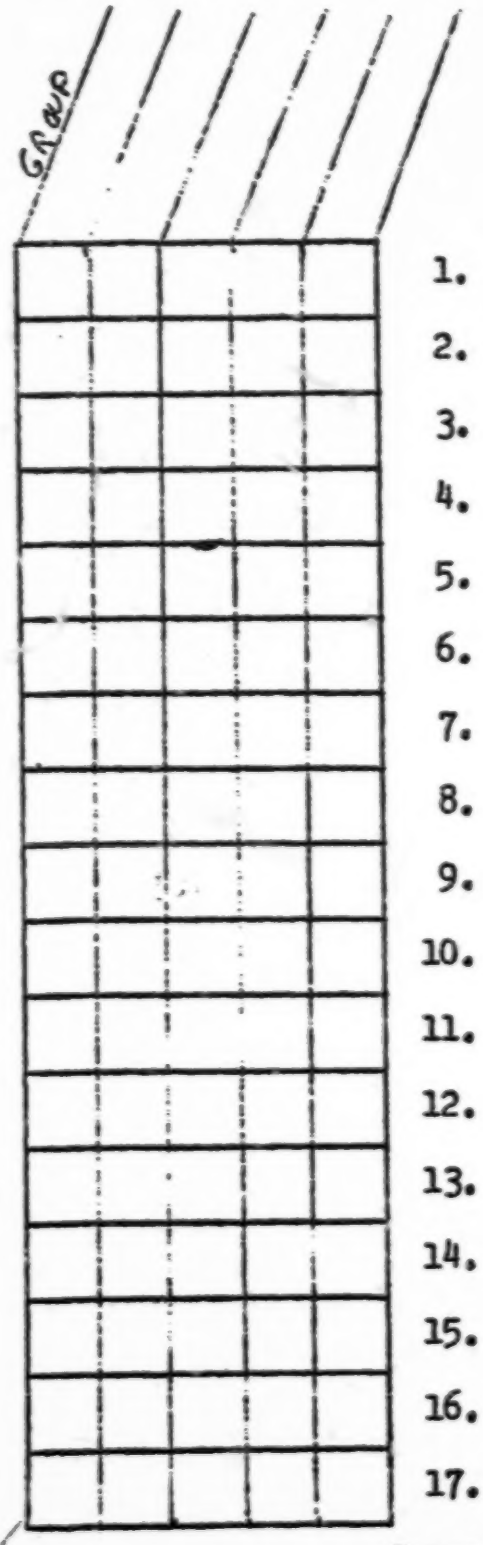
Date _____

Code _____

Age _____ Highest Grade Completed _____

In what community do you work? _____

Directions: Following is a list of statements about any group. Place a plus sign (+) before each statement with which you agree with reference to the group listed at the left of the statements. The person in charge will tell you the group to write in at the head of the columns to the left of the statements. Yout score will in no way affect your grade in any course.



1. Are honest.
2. Tend to improve any group in which they come in contact.
3. I consider it a privilege to associate with this group.
4. Are on a level with my own group.
5. Are religiously inclined.
6. Are considerate of others.
7. Can be resourceful when necessary.
8. Should be regarded as any other group.
9. Are equal in intelligence to the average group.
10. I have no particular love or hatred for this group.
11. Are of a gregarious nature.
12. I suppose these people are all right but I've never liked them.
13. Have a tendency toward insubordination.
14. Are envious of others.
15. Are discourteous.
16. Are slow and unimaginative.
17. Are the most despicable people in the world.

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